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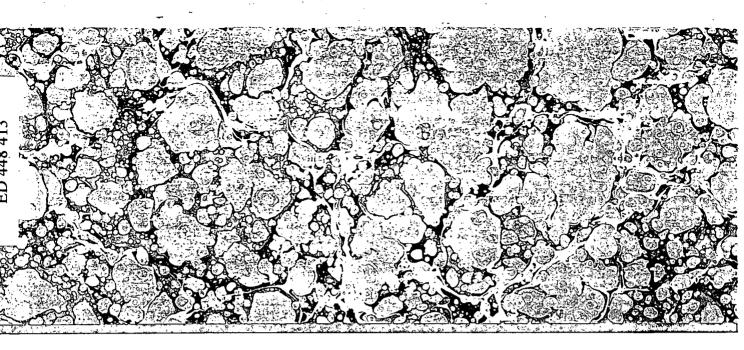
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ABSTRACT

This handbook lists the International Reading Association's 10 recommendations for improving the standards set by Congress' latest reauthorization of Title I, a program that uses federal funds at the local school district level to improve the performance of students in the early elementary grades who are at risk of school failure. Each recommendation is stated and briefly described; supporting evidence is outlined for the recommendation; and references and annotated suggested readings are listed. The 10 recommendations for Title I are as follows: (1) Teachers entrusted with the literacy development of U.S. children should be highly qualified; (2) Even the best teachers need professional development; (3) Schoolwide projects should address the needs of all students with particular attention to those most at risk of school failure; (4) Early intervention is critical; (5) Assessment needs to be ongoing and linked directly to instruction; (6) Accountability encourages involvement and enhances program effectiveness; (7) The services for children need to be coordinated to fit the needs of the child, not the child to the services; (8) Programs should be based on a wide range of research; (9) Parents need to be active partners in all programs; and (10) Decision making needs to be focused on each child and done by those who are closest to the child. It concludes with a list of related resources from the International Reading Association for each of the 10 recommendations. (SR)





International Reading Association

Position on Title I Reauthorization
Policy Recommendations

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BACKGROUND

Title I of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act (ESEA) was enacted in 1965 to improve educational opportunities for low-achieving children attending low-income schools. The Title I program (formerly known as Chapter 1) boosts local school efforts to improve the basic and advanced skills—typically by providing supplemental instruction in reading and mathematics—of students at risk of school failure. Title I reaches over 6 million children annually, generally in the early elementary grades; one in every five first graders in the United States participates, and more than 98% of the dollars appropriated by Congress for Title I are spent at the local school district level (Title I working paper, http://www.ed.gov/updates/Working/title-i.html).

Evaluation results of Title I (then called Chapter 1) pointed to flaws that diminished its potential. Congress recognized that because of its size and scope, Title I should be focused on assisting state and local reforms to improve the performance of students at risk of school failure. As a result, several key changes were made to Title I. The reauthorization of Title I was designed to transform the program by aligning it with the best efforts of state and local school systems to improve teaching and learning for at-risk students.

The following pages list the International Reading Association's 10 recommendations for improving the standards set by the latest Title I reauthorization.

REFERENCES

- U.S. Department of Education. (1996, February 26). *Title I* [Online]. Available: http://www.ed.gov/updates/Working/title-i.html
- U.S. Department of Education. (1999, March 1). 1994 Title 1 changes produced higher standards, targeted funds and improvements in student learning [Online]. Available: http://www.ed.gov/PressReleases/03-1999/title1.html



Teachers entrusted with the literacy development of U.S. children should be highly qualified.

In too many schools in the United States, nonqualified teachers—
paraprofessionals—are being employed to provide instruction to the neediest children. However, students with the greatest needs should have the opportunity to be taught by those *most* qualified. Present practice serves to widen the gap between the most and least competent readers and writers.

There are many reasons why children struggle to learn to read and write. Teachers need to be equipped with the skills to identify these reasons and the ways that individual students learn best. Teachers must use a variety of approaches so they can base instruction on what children need and can do. Teachers with limited knowledge of methods and materials are simply not equipped to support individual learners across a wide variety of backgrounds and abilities.

SUPPORT

Quality of teaching makes a difference.

Researchers in a Dallas, Texas, district have shown that having a less effective teacher can significantly lower a student's performance over time, even if the student later gets more competent teachers (Archer, 1998).

A study of more than 1,000 school districts concluded that every additional dollar spent on more highly qualified teachers netted greater improvements in student achievement than did any other use of school resources (Ferguson, 1991).

On average, the least effective teachers produced gains of about 14 percentile points during the school year. By contrast the most effective teachers posted gains that averaged 53 percentile points (Sanders & Rivers, 1998, as cited in Haycock, 1998).

Poor children have less qualified teachers.

High-poverty schools are more likely to use teacher aides as opposed to certified teachers for reading instruction (Puma et al., 1997).

In the highest poverty schools, in-class reading and language instruction is more likely to be provided by a teacher aide than a certified teacher (44% compared to 17%) (Millsap, Moss, & Gamse, 1993).



ARCHER, J. (1998, February 18). Students' fortunes rest with assigned teacher. Education Week, p. 3. The school district's researchers started by dividing about 1,500 of the 8,500 teachers—those for whom complete personnel information was available—into five groups of equal size, from least to most effective (see Education Week, February 5, 1997). Teachers' effectiveness was based on comparisons of their students' test results at the end of the school year with the test results of students with similar backgrounds who were in the previous grade the year before. Teachers whose students made the greatest gains on the assessments—Iowa Test of Basic Skills and state tests—were deemed most effective. The study also took into account student background factors, such as race and ethnicity. English proficiency, and poverty. Progress was tracked for 3 years, beginning in the 1993–1994 school year, for about 17,000 students who were in grades 4–8 by the 1995–1996 school year.

FERGUSON, R. (1991). Paying for public education: New evidence on how and why money matters. *Harvard Journal on Legislation*, 28, 465–468.

A study of more than 1,000 school districts concluded that every additional dollar spent on more highly qualified teachers resulted in greater improvements in student achievement than did any other use of school resources.

HAYCOCK, K. (1998). Good teaching matters...a lot. Thinking K-16, 3(2), 3-14.

This report asserts that the academic achievement gap—the gap in standardized test scores and other measures of achievement that separates low-income students and students of color from other students—could be eliminated entirely if these students were systematically assigned the most highly qualified teachers, rather than the least qualified teachers. Specifically, Haycock calls on the U.S. Congress to preserve the Miller/Bingaman provisions holding colleges and universities that prepare teachers accountable for the quality of the teachers that they produce. According to the report, every state needs to take six "common sense" steps to improve teacher quality:

- 1. Raise standards for entry into the teaching profession.
- 2. Hold colleges and universities accountable for the quality of teachers they produce.
- 3. Invest in quality ongoing professional development for teachers once they reach the classroom.
- 4. Assure that poor and minority children have teachers that are at least as qualified as the teachers who teach other students.
- 5. Give parents the right to know the qualifications of their children's teachers.
- 6. Recruit and retain, through rewards, the best and brightest for teaching.

MILLSAP, M.A., Moss, M., & Gamse, B. (1993). The Chapter 1 Implementation Study: Chapter 1 in public schools. Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Education, Office of Elementary and Secondary Education.

This volume summarizes the third year of a 3-year study of Chapter 1 (now Title I) implementation. The study addresses how schools have responded to the changes in Chapter 1 created by the Hawkins-Stafford Amendments of 1988. This work summarizes the results of nationally representative surveys of principals, classroom teachers, and Chapter 1 teacher aides in 1,000 Chapter 1 schools. Data were collected during the 1991–1992 school year, the third Hawkins-Stafford implementation. An earlier report from this study, *The Chapter 1 Implementation Study Interim Report*, summarizes the results of a nationally representative survey of district Chapter 1 coordinators and site visits to 9 states, 27 districts (3 in each state), and 54 schools (2 in each district).

PUMA, M.J., KARWEIT, N., PRICE, C., RICCUITI, A., THOMPSON, W., & VADEN-KIERNAN, M. (1997). *Prospects: Final report on student outcomes*. Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Education, Office of Policy and Planning.

This report is one of a series to present findings from *Prospects: The Congressionally Mandated Study of Educational Growth and Opportunity*. The study, conducted in response to the 1988 Hawkins-Stafford Amendments, was a major effort to examine the effects of Chapter 1 on student achievement and other school-related educational outcomes. Data for the study were collected during the 1991–1994 school years from nationally representative samples of students selected from three cohorts enrolled in an initial sample of 400 schools. Information about the students was collected annually using a variety of sources: standardized tests in reading and mathematics; student surveys; and questionnaires administered to teachers, principals, and district administrators.



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Even the best teachers need professional development.

Good teachers have several characteristics in common. They care about their students and work to improve their instruction. They assess the effectiveness of their instruction and adjust their practice accordingly. They believe that all children can learn given appropriate instruction, and they strive to provide that instruction. Title I children usually have more diverse needs than other children and, therefore, put more demands on their teachers.

Teachers need to be aware of new information in the fields of child development, cognitive psychology, and literacy education. They need time and support to integrate changes into their instruction. The most effective professional development programs are those planned by teachers themselves, based on their assessments of their needs as educators and their students' needs as learners. Title I should provide funds for professional development for classroom teachers and Title I instructors.

SUPPORT

Well-implemented professional development programs produce gains in children's reading achievement.

A study of more than 1,000 school districts concluded that every additional dollar spent on more highly qualified teachers netted greater improvements in student achievement than did any other use of school resources (Ferguson, 1991).

Students' scores on standardized tests improved during the 10 years of Project READ. Project READ emphasized coherence and parsimony as a basis for the reading curriculum, and the importance of the teacher as an informed professional with a significant decision-making role in classroom instruction (Calfee & Henry, 1986).

Current forms of professional development are ineffective, yet we know how to do this effectively.

Increased effectiveness of reading/writing/learning study groups could be improved by (1) increasing the span of time from a semester to a full year, (2) addressing more specific topics raised by the teachers, (3) adding classroom visits to participants' classrooms, and (4) including media specialists in the study groups (Johnston & Wilder, 1992).

Compared to large corporations, we spend very little (1% to 3%) of district operating budgets on staff development (National Commission on Teaching & America's Future, 1996).

U.S. teachers receive a few brief workshops offering packaged prescriptions from outside consultants on "inservice day" that contribute little to expanding their knowledge of the subject area or teaching skills (National Commission on Teaching & America's Future, 1996).

More productive strategies have begun to emerge in some school districts, such as teacher networks (teacher-to-teacher and school-to-school) and partnerships (school-to-university) that reflect the teachers' concerns (National Commission on Teaching & America's Future, 1996).

To be most effective, staff development for teachers should include the following: theory, demonstration, practice, feedback, and classroom application (Joyce & Showers, 1980).



CALFEE, R., & HENRY, M.K. (1986, December). Project READ: An inservice model for training classroom teachers in effective reading instruction. In J.V. Hoffman (Ed.), *Effective teaching of reading: Research and practice* (pp. 199–229). Newark, DE: International Reading Association.

This chapter describes efforts to improve reading instruction through a school improvement model, called Project READ. Both university researchers and classroom teachers were involved in its development. For the school staff, the goal was improved instruction for students. The university researchers attempted to determine the validity of theoretical principles based on findings in cognitive psychology—that is, the relations between thinking, learning, the curriculum of the school, and the methods of instruction.

FERGUSON, R. (1991). Paying for public education: New evidence on how and why money matters. *Harvard Journal on Legislation*, 28, 465–468.

A study of more than 1,000 school districts concluded that every additional dollar spent on more highly qualified teachers resulted in greater improvements in student achievement than did any other use of school resources.

JOHNSTON, J.S., & WILDER, S.L. (1992). Changing reading and writing programs through staff development. *The Reading Teacher*, 45(8), 626–631.

Johnston and Wilder are instructional support teachers for reading and language development in Orange County Public Schools in Orlando, Florida. Both have been classroom teachers and both were assigned the responsibility for staff development in their district. The authors devised a model for staff development that incorporates critical elements of the Joyce and Showers research and encourages teachers to make decisions about their learning and professional growth.

JOYCE, B., & SHOWERS, B. (1980). Improving inservice education. *Educational Leadership*, 37, 379–385.

Joyce and Showers examined research on the ability of teachers to acquire teaching skills and strategies. Their analysis was organized to determine how various components of training contribute to learning. To do this they developed a typology of "levels of impact" of training and another for categorizing training components. The major components of training in the studies reviewed were

- presentation of theory or description of skill or strategy,
- modeling or demonstration of skills or models of teaching,
- practice in simulated and classroom settings,
- structured and open-ended feedback (provision of information about performance), and
- coaching for application (hands-on, in-classroom assistance with the transfer of skills and strategies to the classroom).

The results of the training studies were consistent: Teachers learn the knowledge and concepts they are taught and can generally demonstrate new skills and strategies if provided opportunities for any combination of modeling, practice, or feedback.

NATIONAL COMMISSION ON TEACHING & AMERICA'S FUTURE. (1996). What matters most: Teaching for America's future. New York: Author.

The mission of the Commission is to provide an action agenda for meeting America's challenges, connecting the quest for higher student achievement with the need for teachers who are knowledgeable, skillful, and committed to meeting the needs of all students. The Commission is dedicated to helping develop policies and practices aimed at ensuring powerful teaching and learning in all communities as U.S. schools and children enter the 21st century.



Schoolwide projects should address the needs of all students with particular attention to those most at risk of school failure.

At its core, the ideal of schoolwide programs was to offer increased instructional time for students who need it most. Unfortunately, in most cases this has not happened. Resources are often diverted from the core mission of enhancing the basic instructional program to other projects. IRA recommends the schoolwide program be changed so that funds may be used only for core curriculum so that the intent of the program can be served. The ability of children to learn their academic subjects will be enhanced by providing them with basic skills in reading, writing, and mathematics that enable them to better learn in all subject areas.

SUPPORT

With adequate planning and implementation, schoolwide projects can effectively improve the basic skills of low-achieving students.

High-performing, high-poverty schools were characterized by having a more experienced principal, implementing a Chapter 1 schoolwide design, greater use of tracking by student ability, lower rates of teacher and student mobility, a balanced emphasis on remedial and higher order thinking in classroom instruction, and higher levels of community, parent, and teacher support (Puma et al., 1997).

Schoolwide Chapter 1 implemented in six schools increased students' reading and mathematics achievement (Winfield & Hawkins, 1993).

One hundred twenty-five (125) principals out of the 149 who had operated schoolwide projects for 3 years observed improvements in the quality of students' educational experiences. Seventy-eight percent of principals reported that their projects were successful after 3 years, and 38% of this group saw the positive effects of their schoolwide initiatives increase over time (Schenck & Beckstrom, 1993).



PUMA, M.J., KARWEIT, N., PRICE, C., RICCUITI, A., THOMPSON, W., & VADEN-KIERNAN, M. (1997). *Prospects: Final report on student outcomes*. Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Education, Office of Policy and Planning.

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SCHENCK, E.A., & BECKSTROM, S. (1993). Survey of schoolwide project schools and districts. Portsmouth, NH: RMC Research Corporation.

This is a report of findings on a survey of all schoolwide project sites in operation in 1993.

WINFIELD, L.F., & HAWKINS, R. (1993). Longitudinal effects of Chapter 1 schoolwide projects on the achievement of disadvantaged students. Baltimore, MD: Johns Hopkins University, Center for Research on Effective Schooling for Disadvantaged Students.

This report analyzes the longitudinal effects of schoolwide Chapter 1 initiatives on student reading achievement in 40 elementary schools in Philadelphia, Pennsylvania. Compared to control students, second graders in schoolwide projects showed positive and significant effects, and fourth and fifth graders showed positive but nonsignificant effects. Analyses also were conducted on the effects on student achievement in three categories: (1) minimal requirements within school district framework, such as funding school-community coordinators and program support teachers; (2) how schools allocated their resources within schoolwide projects, such as for tutors, full-day kindergarten, or classroom assistants; and (3) other existing Chapter 1 funded programs still operating within the schoolwide project framework.



Early intervention is critical.

Children are active learners from the first days of their lives, and schools need to be redirected so they can assist parents in becoming more effective as children's first teachers. Early childhood programs need to be linked more closely to school programs so there is continuity for children and transitions are smoother. Local Title I programs should expand their outreach activities to coordinate with Head Start and other professional programs. By the time children are exposed to beginning reading instruction in kindergarten and first grade, they should have a foundation that assures them early success. Recent studies indicate just how critical these positive early experiences are to cognitive development and lifelong reading.

SUPPORT

Positive, early experiences are critical to cognitive development and lifelong reading habits.

Before formal instruction is begun, children should possess a broad, general appreciation of the nature of print (Adams, 1990).

Teachers will need to provide challenging materials that require children to analyze and think creatively and from different viewpoints. They also will need to ensure that children have practice in reading and writing (both in and out of school) and many opportunities to analyze topics, generate questions, and organize written responses for different purposes in meaningful activities (International Reading Association & National Association for the Education of Young Children, 1998).

One-to-one tutoring of low-achieving primarygrade students shows potential as an effective instructional approach.

Essential program components related to success were one-to-one lessons, the lesson framework, and the Reading Recovery teacher staff development model (Pinnell et al., 1994).

Follow-up studies found that effects of tutoring were generally lasting. Results were more positive when reading instruction was based on a more comprehensive model of reading and when certified teachers (rather than paraprofessionals) were the tutors (Wasik & Slavin, 1993).



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ADAMS, M.J. (1990). Beginning to read: Thinking and learning about print. Cambridge, MA: Massachusetts Institute of Technology Press.

The book describes a complete review of all aspects of phonics and early reading instruction. Adams concluded that deep and thorough knowledge of letters, spelling patterns, and words, and of the phonological translations of all three, are of inescapable importance to both skillful reading and its acquisition. Instruction designed to develop children's sensitivity to spellings and their relations to pronunciations should be of paramount importance in the development of reading skills. But knowledge of letters is of little value unless the child knows and is interested in their use. Children's concepts about print are also strong predictors of the ease with which they will learn to read.

BOND, G.L., & DYKSTRA, R. (1997). The cooperative research program in first-grade reading instruction. Reading Research Quarterly, 32(4), 345–427.

This article is a reprint of the influential 1967 article that reports the details, procedures, and major conclusions reached by the authors in the analysis of data that came to the Minnesota Coordinating Center from the 27 first-grade reading projects. The study was designed to obtain information relevant to three basic questions: (1) To what extent are various pupil, teacher, class, school, and community characteristics related to pupil achievement in first-grade reading and spelling? (2) Which of the many approaches to initial reading instruction produces superior reading and spelling achievement at the end of first grade? and (3) Is any program uniquely effective or ineffective for pupils with high or low readiness for reading?

INTERNATIONAL READING ASSOCIATION & NATIONAL ASSOCIATION FOR THE EDUCATION OF YOUNG CHILDREN. (1998). Learning to read and write: Developmentally appropriate practices for young children. Newark, DE: International Reading Association; Washington, DC: National Association for the Education of Young Children.

The purpose of this position statement is to provide guidance to teachers of young children in schools and early childhood programs (including child-care centers, preschools, and family child-care homes) serving children from birth through age 8. The principles and practices suggested in the statement also will be of interest to any adults who are in a position to influence a young child's learning and development—parents, grandparents, older siblings, tutors, and other community members.

PINNELL, G.S., LYONS, C.A., DEFORD, D.E., BRYK, A.S., & SELTZER, M. (1994). Comparing instructional models for the literacy education of high-risk first graders. *Reading Research Ouarterly*, 29(1), 8–39.

This study was designed to examine the effectiveness of Reading Recovery as compared to three other instructional models. The lowest achieving first graders (N = 324) from 10 school districts were assigned randomly to one of four interventions or to a comparison group.

SNOW, C.E., BURNS, M.S., & GRIFFIN, P. (Eds.). (1998). Preventing reading difficulties in young children. Washington, DC: National Academy Press.

This report by the Committee on the Prevention of Reading Difficulties in Young Children cuts through the details of research findings to provide an integrated picture of how reading develops and how its development can be promoted.

WASIK, B.A., & SLAVIN, R.E. (1993). Preventing early reading failure with one-to-one tutoring: A review of five programs. *Reading Research Quarterly*, 28(2), 179–200.

This article reviews research on one-to-one tutoring models that have been used to improve the reading skills of first graders who are at risk for reading failure. Five models were identified: Reading Recovery, Success for All, Prevention of Learning Disabilities, The Wallach Tutoring Program, and Programmed Tutorial Reading. Sixteen studies evaluating these models found substantial positive effects of tutoring compared to traditional methods. The cost effectiveness of tutoring and the meaning of the findings for remedial special education are discussed.



Assessment needs to be ongoing and linked directly to instruction.

Students need to have active and ongoing assessment of where they are in their development as readers and writers, and teachers must use the information they get from assessments to plan and adapt instruction. Over the years, assessment has taken a massively oppressive orientation. For many students there are evaluative assessments that take place over many days and often these assessments do not reflect their classroom instruction. Such tests take valuable time away from instruction; they are not relevant for teachers or students. Title I programs should make use of state assessment programs and other assessments being administered in the schools.

Assessments need to be developed that reflect students' instructional programs and provide teachers with useful information about the effectiveness of what they are doing. Students and their parents need to understand how students are being assessed, including what the criteria are for success. As an example of incorporating one of the many assessment strategies, students and teachers need to be involved in self-assessment. Self-assessment strategies can provide the motivation that so many Title I students lack.

SUPPORT

A strong assessment plan is the best ally of teachers and administrators because it supports good instructional decision making and good instructional design.

Any assessment procedure that does not contribute positively to teaching and learning should not be used (International Reading Association & National Council of Teachers of English, 1994).

Multiple measures rather than performance on a single test lead to more valid decision making.

A variety of measures that assess a broad range of performances and behaviors must be employed to understand children's literacy skills. No single instrument or technique can adequately measure achievement in reading because the reading process involves complex interactions among reader, text, task, and contextual variables. To account for this complexity, researchers and educators have explored the effectiveness of literacy portfolios that contain a variety of measures (International Reading Association & National Council of Teachers of English, 1994; Lytle & Botel, 1988; Valencia, 1990; Valencia & Pearson, 1987).



INTERNATIONAL READING ASSOCIATION. (1995). Reading assessment in practice: Book of readings. Newark, DE: Author.

This compilation of 28 articles reflects current research and thinking about performance assessment. Contributors include more than a dozen scholars in the field of reading assessment.

INTERNATIONAL READING ASSOCIATION & NATIONAL COUNCIL OF TEACHERS OF ENGLISH. (1994). Standards for the assessment of reading and writing. Newark, DE: International Reading Association; Urbana, IL: National Council of Teachers of English.

This publication provides a set of standards to guide decisions about assessing the teaching and learning of reading and writing. In the past 30 years, research has produced revolutionary changes in our understanding of language, learning, and the complex literacy demands of a rapidly changing democratic and technological society. The standards proposed are intended to reflect these advances in our understanding.

INTERNATIONAL READING ASSOCIATION & NATIONAL COUNCIL OF TEACHERS OF ENGLISH. (1996). Standards for the English language arts. Newark, DE: International Reading Association; Urbana, IL: National Council of Teachers of English.

These standards present a shared view of literacy education—one that encompasses the use of print, oral language, and visual language and that embraces the six interrelated language arts: reading, writing, speaking, listening, viewing, and visually representing. The standards were designed to complement other national, state, and local standards efforts and to take a position about English language arts classroom activities and curricula.

LYTLE, S., & BOTEL, M. (1988). *PCRP II: Reading, writing, and talking across the curriculum*. Harrisburg, PA: Pennsylvania State Department of Education.

This book discusses PCRP II, an integrative framework for language and literacy that teachers and administrators can use to examine, and when appropriate, to improve school and classroom practice in language use across the curriculum.

VALENCIA, S. (1990). A portfolio approach to classroom reading assessment: The whys, whats, and hows. *The Reading Teacher*, 43(4), 338–340.

This article summarizes, in four guiding principles drawn from both research and instructional practices, the theoretical and pragmatic reasons for a portfolio approach to reading assessment.

VALENCIA, S., & PEARSON, P.D. (1987). Reading assessment: Time for a change. *The Reading Teacher*, 40(8), 726–732.

Tests used to measure reading achievement do not reflect recent advances in the understanding of the reading process, and effective instruction best can be fostered by resolving the discrepancy between what is known and what is measured. In pilot work with 15,000 students in Grades 3, 6, 8, and 10, researchers evaluated several innovative testing formats, such as summary writing, metacognitive judgments, question selection, multiple acceptable responses, and prior knowledge.



Accountability encourages involvement and enhances program effectiveness.

Teachers, schools, school districts, and communities need to be held accountable for publicizing their goals for Title I programs. These groups need to indicate how they will determine the population to be served; how they intend to accomplish the desired impact; how they will measure the impact; and how they will demonstrate to teachers, administrators, parents, other community agencies, and the broader public that what is being done with Title I funds is working. If results are not satisfactory, it should be a shared responsibility of those in the community to determine how the program might be made better. Funding should be contingent on shared commitment and accountability.

SUPPORT

Accountability is an important component of efforts to improve reading achievement.

Most states showing improvement on the National Assessment for Educational Progress (NAEP) have introduced accountability systems, accompanied by progressive supports to help achieve standards.

Maine and Colorado, which are among several states that have scored high on the 1998 NAEP, adopted programs to establish and monitor education standards. Delaware implemented mentoring, afterschool programs, and increased assistance to struggling readers in schools. South Carolina put a high priority on extensive staff development, innovative reading programs, and a textbook program.

"[Connecticut and Colorado] have created programs that include effective assessments. They have worked to involve the whole community, including teachers, teacher educators, and policy makers"—A. Farstrup, Executive Director, International Reading Association (International Reading Association, 1999).

As a part of Vermont's statewide assessment program, fourth- and eighth-grade student mathematics and writing portfolios were implemented and assessed according to criteria developed by committees of teachers (Biggam, Teitelbaum, & Wiley, 1995).

In 1990, the Kentucky Education Reform Act (KERA) put into law all the state statutes recreating the common schools. It also created a statewide school accountability system based on student performance and a system of rewards, sanctions, and assistance (Kingston & Reidy, 1997). Eight years later, Kentucky is one of only three states whose fourth-grade scores on the 1998 NAEP were significantly higher than in 1992 and 1994.

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BIGGAM, S.C., TEITELBAUM, N., & WILEY, J. (1995). Improving early literacy: Vermont stories of educational change from the bottom up and the top down. In R.L. Allington & S.A. Walmsley (Eds.), *No quick fix: Rethinking literacy programs in America's elementary schools* (pp. 197–213). Newark, DE: International Reading Association; New York: Teachers College Press.

This is a review of the Vermont State Board of Education's process to promote change in literacy support for low-achieving first graders.

INTERNATIONAL READING ASSOCIATION & NATIONAL COUNCIL OF TEACHERS OF ENGLISH. (1994). Standards for the assessment of reading and writing. Newark, DE: International Reading Association; Urbana, IL: National Council of Teachers of English.

This publication provides a set of standards to guide decisions about assessing the teaching and learning of reading and writing. In the past 30 years, research has produced revolutionary changes in our understanding of language, learning, and the complex literacy demands of a rapidly changing democratic and technological society. The standards proposed are intended to reflect these advances in our understanding.

INTERNATIONAL READING ASSOCIATION & NATIONAL COUNCIL OF TEACHERS OF ENGLISH. (1996). Standards for the English language arts. Newark, DE: International Reading Association; Urbana, IL: National Council of Teachers of English.

These standards present a shared view of literacy education—one that encompasses the use of print, oral language, and visual language and that embraces the six interrelated language arts: reading, writing, speaking, listening, viewing, and visually representing. The standards were designed to complement other national, state, and local standards efforts and to take a position about English language arts classroom activities and curricula.

INTERNATIONAL READING ASSOCIATION LINKS STATE-BY-STATE RESULTS OF NATIONAL ASSESSMENT OF EDUCATIONAL PROGRESS (NAEP) 1998 Reading Report Card to teacher development (Press release). (1999, March 4). Newark, DE: International Reading Association.

In a statement to the press, the International Reading Association responds to the NAEP Reading 1998 Report: A Report Card for the Nation and the States. The report showed a modest increase in reading proficiency since 1994. NAEP administered the reading assessment to students in grades 4, 8, and 12 in public and private schools. The results present a broad-ranging portrait of how well U.S. students achieved in reading.

KINGSTON, N., & REIDY. E. (1997). Kentucky's accountability and assessment systems. In J. Millman (Ed.), *Grading teachers, grading schools*. (pp. 191–209). Thousand Oaks, CA: Corwin Press.

This chapter describes the philosophy and critical features of the Kentucky accountability and assessment systems, which are parts of the Kentucky Education Reform Act (KERA).

STUFFLEBEAM, D.L. (1997). Oregon teacher work sample methodology: Educational policy review. In J. Millman (Ed.), *Grading teachers, grading schools* (pp. 53–61). Thousand Oaks, CA: Corwin Press.

The research on teacher effectiveness presented in this work reflects a growing and appropriate consensus that teacher evaluation should focus squarely on improving student achievement. The research also provides systematic means of taking account of student background and other context variables.



The services for children need to be coordinated to fit the needs of the child, not the child to the services.

Other programs frequently serve children who are eligible for and in need of Title I services. The statute needs to provide for more effective links with programs like Head Start, vocational education, bilingual education, and others so that interventions are administered more efficiently and effectively.

Schools are only one part of a child's life. In too many situations the child or the family is required to integrate various services with the school; however, this should be the school's responsibility. Services for children need to be coordinated so that the family and the child being served are empowered and enhanced by the service.

SUPPORT

Failure of school staff to coordinate gives children highly fragmented instruction.

Epstein and Salinas found that a key feature among programs was an emphasis on coordinating regular and supplementary classes. They reported that the most efficient coordination was achieved when regular and compensatory education teachers worked together in the same classroom (Epstein & Salinas, 1990).

Classroom teachers as well as specialist teachers need to develop the interpersonal skills necessary to collaborate effectively on instructional planning and delivery. A unified instructional support program focused on enhancing the quality of core curriculum instruction will require all teachers to renegotiate their roles and responsibilities (Walmsley & Allington, 1995).

Services from various social agencies, including the school, should be coordinated.

What is perhaps most striking about programs that are successful with children and families is that all of them find ways to adapt or circumvent traditional professional and bureaucratic limitations when necessary to meet the needs of those they serve (Schorr, 1989).

EPSTEIN, J.L., & SALINAS, K.C. (1992). Promising programs in major academic subjects in the middle grades (Report No. 4). Baltimore, MD: Center for Research on Effective Schooling for Disadvantaged Students.

Epstein and Salinas examined 80 educational programs with promising approaches to serving disadvantaged students in middle schools.

SCHORR, L.B. (with Schorr, D.). (1989). Within our reach: Breaking the cycle of disadvantage. New York: Doubleday.

This book discusses issues involved in the debate over the nature and effectiveness of antipoverty programs, and examines the high economic and social costs of, and the risk factors involved in, cyclical poverty. Three recommendations for breaking the cycle of disadvantage are offered. First, nationwide programs that are already operating effectively should be extended to all who are eligible. These programs include Head Start and the Special Supplemental Food Program for Women, Infants, and Children. Second, states and local communities must be helped to extend those successful programs that have heretofore operated only on a small scale. Third, all concerned individuals must realize that investing in the futures of disadvantaged children necessitates a significant financial commitment.

Walmsley, S.A., & Allington, R.L. (1995). Redefining and reforming instructional support programs. In R.L. Allington & S.A. Walmsley (Eds.), *No quick fix: Rethinking literacy programs in America's elementary schools* (pp. 19–44). Newark, DE: International Reading Association; New York: Teachers College Press.

Classroom teachers as well as specialist teachers need to develop the interpersonal skills necessary to collaborate effectively on instructional planning and delivery. A unified instructional support program focused on enhancing the quality of core curriculum instruction will require all teachers to renegotiate their roles and responsibilities. Children with special needs should receive assistance when they need it from any and all faculty members, but especially from their classroom teacher.



Programs should be based on a wide range of research.

Research-based instruction is critical. Educators need to understand and be able to articulate not only what they are doing but why. A great deal of research has and is being done about reading process and instruction. Each school needs to tailor its reading program to local and individual student needs, and it is essential that the program be based on principles that are the basis of effective schools and information that has been the subject of independent and objective reviews. The key is to have a wide range of research. Research is ongoing and systematic study. We have longitudinal studies on some but not all reading programs. Much existing research is currently being conducted in classrooms by classroom teachers in conjunction with reading programs, university personnel, and professional organizations. Such action research has the potential to be very powerful and should be encouraged by the statute. Local programs should identify their reading goals, methods of instruction, and the principles they are following.

SUPPORT

Programs should be based on a wide range of research that is systematic and ongoing.

Educators have utilized the principle of converging evidence. This aspect of the convergence principle implies that educators should expect to see many different methods employed in all areas of educational research (Snow, Burns, & Griffin, 1998).

In short, for literacy development to be understood freely, there is a need for a variety of research on this topic during the elementary years, which requires public funding of research on many different aspects of literacy development (Pressley & Allington, in press).

Schorr, who works in the area of social welfare, commented that overreliance on experimental research has limited the development of social policy and that a wider variety of research must be used to study complex interventions that are not standardized from site to site (Schorr, Sylvester, & Dunkle, 1999).



PRESSLEY, M., & ALLINGTON, R. (in press). What should reading research be the research of? *Issues in Education*.

This paper addresses the need for wide ranging research methods and paradigms in reading research.

SCHORR, L., SYLVESTER, K., & DUNKLE, M. (1999). Strategies to achieve a common purpose: Tools for turning good ideas into good policies. Washington, DC: Institute for Educational Leadership.

This is a report of the Policy Exchange, Institute for Educational Leadership, and is based on a February 1998 seminar, Achieving a Common Purpose in Early Childhood. It presents seven strategies and the tools to implement those strategies.

SNOW, C.E., BURNS, M.S., & GRIFFIN, P. (Eds.). (1998). Preventing reading difficulties in young children. Washington, DC: National Academy Press.

This report by the Committee on the Prevention of Reading Difficulties in Young Children cuts through the detail of research to provide an integrated picture of how reading develops and how its development can be promoted.



Parents need to be active partners in all programs.

The active involvement of parents with their children in school can make a significant difference in the impact of formal education. However, most schools do not offer programs that help parents work with professional staff by giving them guidance in how to help with homework, where to get help, and how to structure a child's learning outside of school. Few schools offer guidance to parents on how and when to help a child who has been assigned to read 15 minutes each night as part of his or her homework. The Title I program needs to be expanded to include more information for parents on how to help their children become more effective readers.

SUPPORT

Children's reading skills and academic achievement improve when parents are involved.

Students who do more reading at home are better readers (Anderson, Wilson, & Fielding, 1988; Barton & Coley, 1992).

Talking with school personnel about children's academic programs is related positively to achievement (Muller, 1991).

When parent involvement is low, classroom means average 46 points below the national average, and when involvement is high, classrooms score 28 points above the national average—a difference of 74 points. Even after adjustment for the other attributes of communities, schools, principals, classes, and students that might confound this relationship, the association between parent involvement and classroom achievement remains, though the observed gap of 74 points between the groups is reduced to 44 points (U.S. Department of Education, 1996).

When parents and teachers work together on enhancing specific skills, student achievement can improve (Epstein, 1991).

ANDERSON, R.C., WILSON, P.T., & FIELDING, L.G. (1988). Growth in reading and how children spend their time outside of school. *Reading Research Quarterly*, 23, 285–303.

This article discusses how a child's reading performance improves as a function of the time spent reading.

BARTON, P.E., & COLEY, R.J. (1992). American's smallest school: The family (A policy information report). Princeton, NJ: Educational Testing Service.

This volume assembles most of what is available from large-scale measurement programs and surveys of what happens outside school and within the purview of the home that is related to educational achievement. This report addresses trends in family resources, poverty, dependency, and the presence of two parents in the home. Each of the eight sections of the report includes a set of indicators, graphs, or tables, and a narrative, together with the sources used.

EPSTEIN, J.L. (1991). Effects on student achievement of teacher practices of parent involvement. In S. Silvern (Ed.), *Literacy through family, community, and school interaction* (pp. 261–276). Greenwich, CT: JAI.

Epstein found that there are subject-specific links between the involvement of families and increases in achievement by students. For example, with data that connected teacher practices, parent responses, and student achievement, (1) teachers' practices to involve parents in learning activities at home were limited mainly to reading, English, or related activities; also, principals encouraged teachers to involve parents in reading; (2) parents reported more involvement in reading activities; and (3) students improved their reading scores over one school year if parents were involved.

MULLER, C. (1991). Maternal employment, parent involvement, and academic achievement: An analysis of family resources available to the child. In *Resources and actions: Parents, their children and schools* (pp. 22–23). Chicago, IL: University of Chicago, National Opinion Research Center.

A comprehensive study led by James Coleman extensively analyzed the parent involvement data collected from the National Educational Longitudinal Study of 1988. Muller found the following to be significant for predicting test scores: (1) talking regularly about current school experiences (highly significant), (2) restriction of television watching on weekdays, (3) adequate after-school supervision, and (4) parents knowing the parents of their children's friends.

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION. (1996). Reading literacy in the United States: Findings from the IEA Reading Literacy Study. Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics.

In 1991, the International Association for Evaluation of Educational Achievement (IEA) Reading Literacy Study assessed the reading material of fourth graders and ninth graders in several countries. This report presents three sets of findings from that report: (1) how U.S. students compare to students in other countries; (2) relations between reading comprehension and aspects of family, schooling, and community; and (3) the nature of reading instruction in U.S. classrooms.



Decision making needs to be focused on each child and done by those who are closest to the child.

Each child has a different set of needs; some children need to be motivated while others need specific forms of instruction. Deciding how to meet each child's specific needs should be done as close to the child as possible. Policy makers, regulators, and others who are not in direct contact with the child should be setting goals and providing each child with the tools for an effective school: good teachers, a wide range of materials, and time to do the job.

SUPPORT

If we are to be successful in promoting reading achievement, we must locate decision making at the point of service to students.

It is methodologically feasible to determine teacher effectiveness fairly and in a manner that is related to cumulative student outcomes. In addition to this finding, this study of teacher effectiveness efficiently identifies a group of teachers in any one year whose affect on students is detrimental and who are in need, as a group, of extensive help. They also identify a group of teachers whose affect on students is clearly beneficial. These results have implications for teachers' appraisal and mentoring, and for individual, school, and district professional development programs (Jordan, Mendro, & Weerasinghe, 1997).

Because there is no clearly documented best way to teach beginning reading, professionals who are closest to the children must be the ones to make the decisions about what reading methods to use, and they must have the flexibility to modify those methods when they determine that particular children are not learning (International Reading Association, 1998).

INTERNATIONAL READING ASSOCIATION. (1998, May). Resolution on policy mandates. Adopted by the delegates assembly at the 43rd Annual Convention of the International Reading Association, Orlando, FL.

The resolution urges policy makers to promote efforts that support teacher decision making, and to promote policies that allow publishers and developers to create materials and programs that are responsive to the needs of all students.

INTERNATIONAL READING ASSOCIATION & NATIONAL ASSOCIATION FOR THE EDUCATION OF YOUNG CHILDREN. (1998). Learning to read and write: Developmentally appropriate practices for young children. Newark, DE: International Reading Association; Washington, DC: National Association for the Education of Young Children.

The purpose of this position statement is to provide guidance to teachers of young children in schools and early childhood programs (including child-care centers, preschools, and family child-care homes) serving children from birth through age 8. The principles and practices suggested in the statement also will be of interest to any adults who are in a position to influence a young child's learning and development—parents, grandparents, older siblings, tutors, and other community members.

JORDAN, H.R., MENDRO, R.L., & WEERASINGHE, D. (1997, July). Teacher effects on longitudinal student achievement: A preliminary report on research on teacher effectiveness. Presented at the CREATE Annual Meeting, Indianapolis, IN.

This is a preliminary report of research that investigates long-term effects of teachers on student achievement in reading and mathematics in the Dallas, Texas, public school system over five different longitudinal populations who were in the fourth through eighth grades in 1995–1996. The student population consisted of students with 4 years of complete data from 1993 to 1996. Ten cohorts were identified: students with either complete reading data or complete mathematics data who ended in grades 4 through 8 in 1996. The pretest and criterion measures were NCE scores on the Iowa Test of Basic Skills reading comprehension and mathematics subtests.



RELATED RESOURCES FROM THE

INTERNATIONAL READING ASSOCIATION

Recommendation 1: Teachers entrusted with the literacy development of U.S. children should be highly qualified.

Building a Knowledge Base in Reading Jane Braunger & Jan Patricia Lewis

Standards for Reading Professionals (Revised)
Developed by the Professional Standards and Ethics
Committee of the International Reading Association

Standards for the English Language Arts
International Reading Association & National Council
of Teachers of English

Recommendation 2: Even the best teachers need professional development.

The Explicit Teaching of Reading Joelie Hancock, Editor

Kids InSight: Reconsidering How to Meet the Literacy Needs of All Students Deborah R. Dillon

Linking Literacy and Technology: A Guide for K-8 Classrooms

Shelley B. Wepner, William J. Valmont, & Richard Thurlow, Editors

New Directions in Reading Instruction—Revised Bess Hinson, Editor

Recommendation 3: Schoolwide projects should address the needs of all students with particular attention to those most at risk of school failure.

Literacy Instruction for Culturally and Linguistically Diverse Students: A Collection of Articles and Commentaries Michael F. Opitz, Editor

Preventing Reading Difficulties in Young Children Catherine E. Snow, M. Susan Burns, & Peg Griffin, Editors

Struggling Adolescent Readers: A Collection of Teaching Strategies

David W. Moore, Donna F. Alvermann, & Kath

David W. Moore, Donna E. Alvermann, & Kathleen A. Hinchman, Editors

Teaching Struggling Readers: Articles from The Reading Teacher Richard L. Allington, Editor

Variability Not Disability Cathy M. Roller

Recommendation 4: Early intervention is critical.

Children Achieving: Best Practices in Early Literacy Susan B. Neumann & Kathleen A. Roskos, Editors Emerging Literacy: Young Children Learn to Read and Write Dorothy S. Strickland & Lesley Mandel Morrow, Editors

Facilitating Preschool Literacy Robin Campbell, Editor

Learning to Read and Write: Developmentally Appropriate Practices for Young Children
International Reading Association (IRA) & National
Association for the Education of Young Children (NAEYC)

Recommendation 5: Assessment needs to be ongoing and linked directly to instruction.

Authentic Reading Assessment: Practices and Possibilities Sheila W. Valencia, Elfrieda H. Hiebert, & Peter P. Afflerbach, Editors

Reading Assessment in Practice: A Video-Based Professional Development Program for Elementary Teachers

Kathryn A. Ransom, Doris D. Roettger, & Phyllis M. Staplin, Project Coordinators

Reading Assessment: Principles and Practices for Elementary Teachers Shelby J. Barrentine, Editor

Standards for the Assessment of Reading and Writing International Reading Association & National Council of Teachers of English Joint Task Force on Assessment

Recommendation 6: Accountability encourages involvement and enhances program effectiveness.

No Quick Fix: Rethinking Literacy Programs in America's Elementary Schools

Richard L. Allington & Sean A. Walmsley, Editors

Recommendation 7: The services for children need to be coordinated to fit the needs of the child, not the child to the services.

Families at School: A Guide for Educators
Adele Thomas, Lynn Fazio, & Betty L. Stiefelmeyer

Families at School: A Handbook for Parents Adele Thomas, Lynn Fazio, & Betty L. Stiefelmeyer

Family Literacy Connections in Schools and Communities Lesley Mandel Morrow, Editor

Learning Differences in the Classroom Elizabeth N. Fielding

Recommendation 8: Programs should be based on a wide range of research.

Handbook of Reading Research, Volume III
Michael L. Kamil, Peter B. Mosenthal, P. David Pearson, &
Rebecca Barr, Editors



Historical Sources in U.S. Reading Education 1900-1970: An Annotated Bibliography Richard D. Robinson, Editor

Perspectives on Writing: Research, Theory, and

Roselmina Indrisano & James R. Squire, Editors

Revisiting the First-Grade Studies: Articles from Reading Research Quarterly John E. Readence & Diane M. Barone, Editors

Theoretical Models and Processes of Reading (Fourth Edition)

Robert B. Ruddell, Martha Rapp Ruddell, & Harry Singer, Editors

Recommendation 9: Parents need to be active partners in all programs.

Becoming a Family of Readers video Coproduced by Reading Is Fundamental, Inc., & Literacy Volunteers of America

Families at School: A Handbook for Parents Adele Thomas, Lynn Fazio, & Betty L. Stiefelmeyer

Read to Me video Produced by the Idaho Literacy Project

Starting Out Right: A Guide to Promoting Children's Reading Success

M. Susan Burns, Peg Griffin, & Catherine E. Snow, **Editors**

What Should We Expect of Family Literacy? Experiences of Latino Children Whose Parents Participate in an Intergenerational Literacy Project Jeanne R. Parratore, Gigliano Melzi, & Barbara Krol-Sinclair

Recommendation 10: Decision making needs to be focused on each child and done by those who are closest to the child.

Learning to Read and Write: Developmentally Appropriate Practices for Young Children International Reading Association (IRA) & National Association for the Education of Young Children (NAEYC)

Practical Steps for Informing Literacy Instruction: A Diagnostic Decision-Making Model Michael W. Kibby

The First R: Every Child's Right to Read Michael F. Graves, Paul van den Broek, & Barbara M. Taylor, Editors

NEWSPAPER

Reading Today, the Association's bimonthly newspaper about current issues in reading education, is part of a basic membership to the International Reading Association.

Position Statements

As an advocate of excellence in the teaching of reading, the International Reading Association participates actively in the process of shaping sound public policy in education. Research-based positions on critical issues are disseminated through a series of position statements on such topics as these:

- Adolescent Literacy (1999)
- Excellent Reading Teachers (2000)
- Learning to Read and Write: Developmentally Appropriate Practices for Young Children (1998)
- Making a Difference Means Making It Different: Honoring Children's Rights to Excellent Reading Instruction (2000)
- Phonemic Awareness and the Teaching of Reading (1998)
- Providing Books and Other Print Materials for Classroom and School Libraries (2000)
- Teaching All Children to Read: The Roles of the Reading Specialist (2000)
- The Role of Phonics in Reading Instruction (1997)
- Using Multiple Methods of Beginning Reading Instruction (1999)

JOURNALS

The International Reading Association publishes peerreviewed journals that serve professionals at all levels in literacy education:

- The Reading Teacher covers the newest developments in elementary education.
- Journal of Adolescent & Adult Literacy offers solutions and strategies for teachers of middle school, high school, college, and adult learners.
- Reading Research Quarterly provides a forum for multidisciplinary research, alternative modes of inquiry, and varying viewpoints on reading instruction.
- Lectura y vida is a Spanish-language quarterly that offers insightful articles on research, theory, and practice applicable to reading instruction in Spanish at all levels.
- Reading Online (www.readingonline.org) is a peer-reviewed interactive electronic journal that explores research, instruction, and communications in the reading field.

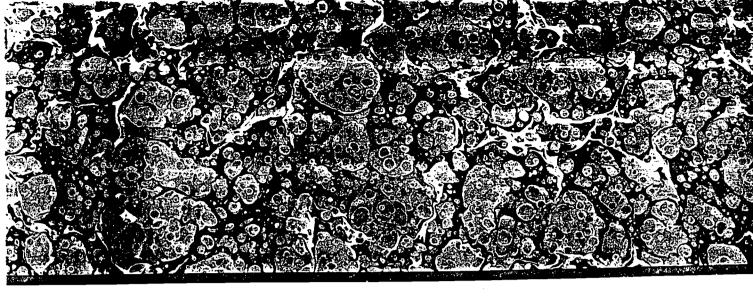
ORDERING INFORMATION

To order these materials, visit the International Reading Association Online Bookstore: bookstore.reading.org

or contact the Order Department-International Reading Association 800 Barksdale Road, Box 8139 Newark, DE 19714-8139, USA

Telephone: 800-336-READ, extension 266 Fax: 302-737-0878





For more information about the International Reading Association, Visit the Web site at www.reading.org or contact the Public Information Office, 800-336-READ, extension 293.

Reading Association

800 Barksdale Rd., PO Box 8139, Newark, DE 19714-8139 USA he International Reading Association is dedicated to improved reading and literacy for all people. We believe that the success of this mission lies with educators, who daily step up to the challenge of helping students master the literacy skills fundamental to all learning. Founded on the premise that better teachers make better readers, IRA provides educators with a wealth of resources that foster reading success for all learners:

Professional development resources and opportunities to improve reading instruction and advance teaching goals.

Access to the latest research on the reading process, as well as opportunities to pursue reading research.

Advocacy for educational policies and practices that support teachers and their students.

Alliances with public, private, and community organizations to shape proactive educational policies that promote literacy in schools throughout the broader community and around the world.

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